

FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION A QUARTERLY BULLETIN

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UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND
CULTURAL ORGANIZATION

FOREWORD

ALTHOUGH the authors in this issue do not often refer to fundamental education, the experiments they describe have a direct relevance to the situations we face. The problem of how to extend education shows certain constants; and the solutions described here bear on some of these: distances, poor communications, scattered population.

The radio forum in Canada and mobile cinema in Morocco have both been developed in a painstaking way: a modern technique is applied to overcome isolating factors, but applied experimentally so as to be constantly improved and brought closer to the daily lives and needs of the people served. In this sense the radio forum deserves careful study. Far from being an educational device or aid, it seems to offer an altogether new approach to education and to democratic citizenship.

The use of postal tuition as a means of supplementing or extending classroom attendance is no new device. But in the Australian experience, again, we see how the problem—great distances which cut some children off from school—has been met in a systematic way. The steadily developing correspondence courses have become a regular part of the country's educational system—no mere expedient, they are now a distinct form of teaching, and the responsibility of the State, with an institutional basis of their own.

The 'mobile unit' in fundamental education receives considerable attention; one thinks of the motorized and fluvial missions in Mexico, the travelling missions in Guatemala, travelling teams in parts of British Africa; the library or the museum on wheels. Some day soon we shall need to halt for an objective stocktaking—how do the costs and effects of this education compare with those of more traditional forms; and especially, do the film, library, museum vans, even the 'mobile kitchens', contain special virtues of their own, contributing an indispensable element to the national system, as the radio forum and correspondence schools do, or are they simply expedients adopted for lack of something more permanent?

CANADA FARM RADIO FORUM

by R. ALEX SIM

THE National Farm Radio Forum is a radio listening group programme in adult education. It is directed toward the whole farm population of Canada, toward the families who live on the land, the women and the young people as well as the men. It combines the use of radio and printed material with the small informal discussion group; and the problems it deals with are the real social and economic ones of rural Canada.

The first listening group experiments were begun in Canada in 1937, 1938, and 1939. In the fall of 1941 a national programme was launched, continuing through the war and reconstruction periods.

There are today about 1,600 Farm Forum groups in Canada, with not quite 30,000 people meeting regularly in the groups. Well over half of these groups are in Central Canada, about 300 in the Eastern Maritime Provinces, about the same number in the prairie provinces and only a few in British Columbia. In French Canada there is a somewhat similar project, not described here. The listening groups vary considerably in size but the average is 17 members per group. While members can be found in all age groups, the majority of the members are found in the age group between 30 and 50 years of age.

In Canada this programme is intended for a literate population, but the underlying principles might be equally efficacious if applied among a pre-literate people.

It is thought that the method, or parts of it, may be interesting to adult educators in other parts of the world. Consequently a rather careful analysis of the project and of its cultural setting will be undertaken.

THE ROLE OF HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY]

If an idea develops in one part of the world, it can only be understood adequately when the culture out of which it grew is apprehended. National Farm Radio Forum is of course, like all popular movements, a product of an identifiable complex of social and economic conditions, of historical trend, of belief and practice, and even of climate and geography.

The great unalterables of Canadian life-space, snow and a powerful neighbour to the South, were determining factors in the growth of the National Farm Radio Forum. So were depression, the war, and the experience of the BBC with radio listening groups.

In the United States a new idea may be almost wholly American, but in Canada new ideas usually bear the stamp of the U.S.A. and of Europe as well, particularly of Great Britain and France. But if the ideas is truly creative, as we believe the Farm Forum is, then the borrowed elements are shaped in Canadian minds and fitted into the peculiar conditions imposed locally by time and space.

A large proportion of Canadian farmers own radios and automobiles, even though they are not the latest models. These new devices of communication had helped to break down the intimate bonds of neighbourhood which existed in the early pioneer days, though the long winter tends to reimpose limitations on travel.

It was felt by those who were promoting study groups and listening groups that the winter months could again become a time for neighbourliness. The men were not able to work in the fields, and it was practical, even though it might not often be done, to visit the nearest neighbour.

Neighbourliness was disappearing owing to new conditions of work, but there was much nostalgia and much regret that this old spirit of interdependence was disappearing. This regret was a factor that facilitated the organization of discussion groups.

Another factor of equal importance was an economic one. Canadian agriculture is as dependent for its prosperity upon the interest of foreign markets in wheat, cheeses, beef and bacon, as it is upon the ability of the Canadian urban consumer to pay adequate prices for food. Between the two wars the Canadian farmer had known the meaning of low prices and poverty. At the beginning of the second world war, when price controls and other government regulations of production were brought in, the farmer felt that the disparity of the thirties was now being imposed by law. There was a long story in Canada of the attempts of agriculture to organize. There had local successes in politics and in co-operatives, but nationally there was no strong organization, and the farmers wanted the same kind of powerful organization commerce and labour had built up. The answer to this need came very rapidly in 1939 in the growth of the Canadian Federation of Agriculture. But it was a federation without local groups or individual membership. The Canadian Federation of Agriculture was one of the organizations that sponsored the Farm Forum, and while it was never dominated by the CFA, the farmers felt that their discussion groups were linked in a practical way to an organization that could and did improve their economic conditions.

Now geography enters. One reason why the farmers had not organized nationally before was that settlement was stretched across 3,000 miles on the east-west axis, but with little depth north of the United States boundary. Thus there were many well-defined regions but they were separated from each other by physical barriers. The task of national integration had never been accomplished.

Just as neighbourhoods were separated by snow in the winter, so these agricultural regions were separated by rock, forest and lakes from each other. And it is radio, the magic wand, which has melted down these barriers and moulded the whole farm population into one community each Monday night each winter since 1941.

Radio in Canada is both like and unlike the British and American systems. Local stations, some of them powerful ones, are privately owned. But the three networks, two English and one French, are operated by a publicly owned system, the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. This body is financed not by public funds but from licences on radio sets, and from advertising. The influence of the United States, that politically friendly but economically dominating neighbour to the South, was a factor in the establishment of the CBC, just as it was in the establishment of Canadian Confederation and the building of a railway to the Pacific in the last century. In the twenties and thirties a Canadian radio system was made a public trust, partly because of the growing influence of the American radio networks. The idea behind the CBC was that it should be an instrument of creating national unity and self-consciousness. The imaginative support given to the Farm Forum by the CBC can best be understood when it is realized that as a public body it was created to accomplish precisely what the Farm Forum was aiming to do, namely to serve the rural people, to create national unity, and to enrich the lives of the people.

Finally it must be recognized that the Farm Forum grew out of a national adult educational movement, for it is doubtful if it would ever have been organized by the CFA and the CBC alone. The Canadian Association for Adult Education was organized in 1935, and though its limited budget prevented it from launching programmes of its own, it was definitely interested in social action.

This interest can be accounted for. There were a number of people active in the CAAE who were, so to speak, second generation people in the farm movement. In the early part of the 20th century the farm movement had been interested in political action. Then again there had been several farmers' governments in power in the country after the first world war, and there was interest in co-operative action. In both cases education had been a narrowly conceived instrument of action¹ and in both fields the action had fallen short of expectations. As a result there was interest in adult education that was less partisan than that of the action programmes, and less objective and remote from the real world of prices and mortgages than university extension and agricultural extension had been.

Thus, much of the leadership of the Farm Forum, fostered with sensitive care by Dr. E. A. Corbett, director of the CAAE, came from young men who were second generation in the farm movement. They were men who had come from an early experience in co-operatives, wheat pools, farmers' political parties. And they were farm boys who wanted to be farmers—though the economic conditions were so bad that the future seemed hopeless. It was a time—between 1931 and 1939—among young people when the experience of their fathers was given searching scrutiny and new solutions were sought.

National Farm Radio Forum was one such solution: it grew out of the social and economic soil of Canada.

To this general analysis some other considerations should be added. The experience of the British Broadcasting Corporation in its organization of radio listening groups, particularly those for music, was now available, and there was considerable interest in these groups in study groups in Canada. Some farmer leaders had visited Scandinavia and were impressed with the study group programmes in these countries. The methods which had just been developed in Ohio in organizing rural discussion groups had also been studied. But the most important single influence came from Canada.

This was the experience of the University of St. François Xavier in eastern Nova Scotia. The programme of this small Roman Catholic University among the fishermen, workers and farmers had been one of education in study groups focused on action, directed towards the organization of credit unions and co-operatives. This programme gave a stimulus in Canada to the whole idea of study groups and of education for action.

But when adult education workers attempted to organize study groups elsewhere in Canada, they did not meet the success of the workers in Nova Scotia. Simple written discussion outlines were not available. The groups that were organized were scattered. Leaders were lacking. And the groups were dealing with local problems, when rightly or wrongly the farmers felt that the real problems were due to a lack of an adequate *national* policy for agriculture, exports, farm credit and the like.

When the Farm Forum did emerge it was a national project. It published simply written discussion outlines. These, with the broadcast, gave great stimulus to groups where there was no experienced discussion leader. It dealt

1. Though there are several individuals whose educational work in the political and co-operative movements are an exception to this observation.



Farm Forum groups meet in farm-houses to listen to the National Farm Radio Forum broadcast and then carry on their own discussion on the topic of the evening. In this picture, Poplar Heights Forum, in the prairie province of Manitoba, studies the question 'Should Tariff Barriers be Abolished?'

with national problems, some with aspects which lent themselves to local solution. In short it perfected a means, independent of government or other agencies with an axe to grind, which could communicate simultaneously with farmers all over Canada.

But the messages directed to the farmers and their families by these powerful instruments, radio and the press, were not directed to individuals nor to mass audiences, but to groups. In directing the communication to groups it was felt that the danger of creating only a means of conducting propaganda might be avoided. This interest in making the programme a truly democratic one was further advanced by the development of a system of two-way communication, of creating a structure wherein the farmers could voice their thoughts and have them heard. But before the basic ideas of the Farm Forum are described, the total structure must be understood.

THE STRUCTURE AND HOW IT WORKS

National Farm Radio Forum is a semi-independent organism. It is sponsored by the three national organizations already referred to; the Canadian Federation of Agriculture, the Canadian Association for Adult Education, and the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. The latter makes no direct subvention to the budget of NFRF but it provides the broadcasts, the writers' and artists' fees and the network time as a public service.

The contributions of the CFA and the CAAE are about equal, and they cover the overhead of maintaining a national office; the salaries of a general secretary, of a research editor, and a stenographer; travel, rent, stationery, and similar costs. The largest expense is in editing and publishing the discussion bulletin, the *Farm Forum Guide*, which is published three times a month for the five winter months of the Farm Forum season. The provincial Farm Forum Offices buy these bulletins from the national office at a cost somewhat above the cost of printing, so that the provinces also contribute to the national budget.

There is no uniform pattern for the organization of the provincial offices. In one province, the extension department of the university assumes the entire responsibility for maintaining an office. In another province, the provincial federation of agriculture runs for the Farm Forum office. In another province,

the Farm Forums have established their own council and are entirely responsible for their own affairs.

The organization in this province might be described in more detail. The office maintains a Secretary-Organizer, and one stenographer. It maintains mechanical equipment for mailing. Its budget is contributed to from three sources. About two-fifths is contributed by the Farm Forum members, two-fifths by the provincial Department of Agriculture, and one-fifth by the central co-operative wholesale. The university contributes no money, but provides office space, and other services which would be costly items otherwise.

In all the provinces, the groups themselves contribute, along with several other interested agencies. Since the provinces pay into the national budget indirectly by buying the *Guide*, it follows that a large number of organizations are involved in Farm Forum. However, the federal Department of Agriculture makes no contribution to the Farm Forum project.

With such diversity in structure, one could ask, who really controls the Farm Forum project?

There is a conscious effort to place control in the hands of the Farm Forums, but such control is rather indirect as yet. There is a National Board which is finally responsible for the project. The three sponsoring bodies are represented here. Each province which has a Provincial Council on which a majority of members are elected by Farm Forums, has the right to be represented on the National Board. As yet, only two provinces have so qualified.

Each Spring there are two important events that shape policy.

Towards the end of the season, a long questionnaire is distributed to the Forums. This solicits opinions of all kinds on the broadcasts, the *Guide*, the management of the project, and most important, it asks for suggestions for topics for the following year.

Then late in May, there is a national meeting of secretaries, and board members from both the national and provincial levels. Here, broad questions of policy are thrashed out.

The importance of all these devices should not be over-stressed, for the three sponsored bodies still wield much power, but it is a good deal less than absolute control over the project.

All Farm Forum groups listen to the same broadcast on a national network each Monday evening. The broadcasts are provided by the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. Here, a panel of speakers discusses the topic 'Labour and Farmer—Friend or Foe?'. Seated from left to right are: A. R. Kemp, Supervisor of CBC Farm Broadcasts and Chairman of the discussion; Hector Hill, member of a provincial farm organization; W. G. Davies, representing the labour unions; and W. R. Shaw, official of a provincial Department of Agriculture.



The core of National Farm Radio Forum is not the broadcast, but the discussion group. The weekly broadcasts and the weekly discussion *Guide* are important contributing factors to the success of the group, but nothing more.

The broadcast is a half-hour weekly production on Monday night, from November through to March. Each month, there are three broadcasts around one theme, such as Education, Foreign Markets, Immigration; subjects of a social or economic nature, vitally connected with agriculture. Each broadcast will deal with a separate aspect of the theme. A *Guide* is printed and distributed to each member prior to the broadcast.

Thus, each member has received the four-page *Guide*, and has had an opportunity of reading it before the broadcast. The *Guide* gives references, so that one member in the group may be appointed to study the matter more deeply in the library, or in government pamphlets.

The broadcast on the topic of the night occupies twenty-five minutes of the broadcast time. It may be a discussion among three or four people, experts and farmers interested in the topic. Or it may be a dramatized presentation. The form the broadcast takes depends on the nature of the subject, whether experts are easily available (and will talk), or whether the topic is one that is easily dramatized.

In the broadcast, there is an effort not to present easy and simple solutions to the problem, but to open up the problem effectively, point to various solutions offered, and leave the matter open for the group to discuss. The *Guide* follows this practice too, though it is more factual than the broadcast.

In addition to the factual material, the *Guide* publishes three discussion questions. The questions are offered as an agenda for the discussion leader to follow. Each group has a permanent secretary, who receives the *Guide* and other material from the provincial office (the National Office never mails directly to the groups). The Chairman may be permanent, or may alternate, depending entirely on the group practice.

The broadcast begins at 8.30 p. m., though with five time zones the hour of beginning varies. The group members are expected to be in the home of the farmer, where the meeting is to be held, before 8.30, though some may tiptoe in late, or even listen at home, and drive over after the broadcast for the discussion.

Most, but not all the members have radios, so the meetings are held only in homes that have radios. Sometimes, portable radios are used. Occasionally the meetings are held in a church or school.

After the broadcast, the radio is turned off, and the leader begins by reading 'communiqués' from the provincial office and transacting other business. Then he turns to the discussion questions. The members of the group discuss the questions freely, and then either the Chairman or the Secretary will try to reflect the opinion of the group on the problem. Quite often the Secretary will read out 'the answer' he or she has written down before the group moves on to the next question. These answers are then mailed to the provincial office.

The reader may have noticed that only twenty-five minutes of the thirty-minute broadcast has been accounted for. During the last five minutes, the national network is broken down into a series of provincial networks. Then, in each province, the provincial secretary broadcasts to the listening groups a summary of the 'Findings' of all the Forums that reported on the previous week. This is the first step in the process of two-way communication.

When they hear this report, the groups themselves can compare their own ideas with those of neighbouring groups. Often a group is quoted when it has

made a good point in dealing with a problem. It naturally pleases the group to hear its opinion quoted on the air.

The next step in the process is that on the fourth week, after three broadcasts on one theme. The provincial Secretaries may appear on a round-up on the national network to present a summary of the findings for the three previous discussions. Thus, radio becomes a mirror reflecting the opinion across Canada on an issue of the day.

We spoke earlier of regional diversity in Canada. These round-up programmes had a powerful effect on the farm people, and on their leaders. For it was impressive how much agreement there was among the groups in all the provinces when these issues were discussed carefully and reasonably. Now, it would be more difficult to play off one section of the country against the other.

The next step in the process is that the provincial secretaries often use these findings to inform the Government of the attitude of farmers on a certain problem, or the Canadian Federation of Agriculture may use them formally or informally in making representations to the Government, or simply for their own information. It is difficult to assess the importance of informal individuals listening to the broadcast. Thousands of farmers listen who are not in groups, and so do urban people as well. Moreover, it is known that many politicians and civil servants make it a rule to be near a radio on Monday night. Yet we cannot estimate the effect of the broadcast on public opinion and public policy though it is thought to be a powerful influence, particularly the last five minutes, and the round-up programme at the end of the month when the farmers are given a chance to 'talk back'.

Now let us return to the group. It has finished answering the discussion questions, but it would be an exceptional group if it went home after that. The serious part of the programme is followed by recreation, singing or card playing, or just quiet talk among neighbours. There may be more card playing or even dancing. Then home and to bed for a few brief hours of sleep before it is time to face the early morning duties of house and stable.

These meetings in the farm homes occur three nights out of four. On the fourth night, when there is not a special topic of discussion, the group may not meet at all, or it may meet in a community hall in combination with others in the locality.

In these community rallies may be seen another manifestation of the Farm Forum project that has not been emphasized. That is the local action resulting from the discussion and interaction in the groups, and between groups. In this complex world, there are not many problems left to the small group which it can solve, and which can have appreciable effect upon the national and world conditions that impinge upon the small group and the individual. Even though such problems may seem to be relatively unimportant, the Farm Forum stresses them, because such preoccupation may lead to larger action encompassing more and more groups, and because it gives the people experience in small things, in order that they may be competent later to deal with larger ones.

Often at these community rallies films are used, or special lecturers are brought in, or there is old-time dancing, debates, or meetings, to consider a local project of some kind. There has been a careful record kept of these local action projects, and the list of undertakings that have sprung from group discussions is most impressive. They range from the purchase of garden seeds or collecting money to have the snow ploughed from the road, to the organization of a co-operative cold-storage plant, entailing thousands of dollars of investment.

education (if those two words can be placed together), reaching out simultaneously to great numbers of people but at the same time respecting their ideas, inviting their opinions, and making channels by which these opinions can flow backwards to experts, government officials and the like.

There are many residual problems. As yet there is no effective method of evaluating the project. A continuous research programme is needed. There is a large French population in Canada, but though a listening groups programme is carried on for French farmers, the *Choc des idées*, the French and English programmes do not work together. A programme of these dimensions tends to become rather rigid, yet flexibility must be preserved at all costs.

On the positive side, the Farm Forum leaders are aware of these problems. A matter of very real satisfaction is that leadership is coming from the rank and file of the membership. A democratic adult education works in the belief that the rank and file will produce its own leadership. The Farm Forum experience has helped to reinforce this faith.

REFERENCES

McKenzie Ruth, 'National Farm Radio Forum'. *Adult Education in Canada*. (J. R. Kidd, ed.) Toronto, 1950.

This book has further references dealing with Forum Farming, and adult education in Canada.

More details about National Farm Radio Forum can be secured from the National Office, 209, Huron Street, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

MOBILE FILM UNITS IN MOROCCO

by Lieut. DUMONT

To bring the cinema to the most remote tribes, to develop films which might instruct and entertain the rural folk of Morocco, and in addition accustom them to modern progress—these are tasks of which the Government of the Protectorate has long been conscious.

The need for such action was expressed a long time ago by Lyautey (in a letter dated 31 December 1920); and since then the cinema has become recognized as the most powerful medium for reaching the entire population. With further progress for some years along the way the Government has opened, and an increase in the production of educational films, the cinema will be established in the lives of hundreds of thousands of rural Moroccans—men, women and children—as an agreeable occasion of both pleasure and profit.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS

The use of the cinema in rural areas has met with a number of difficulties peculiar to the country.

There is, first, a language problem. Moving from the coast towards the interior one finds an almost pure form of Arabic, then an Arabic dialect only remotely connected with the townsman's language, then two Berber dialects with marked differences. The southern Berber does not understand his brother of the Middle Atlas, and neither understands his Arabic-speaking co-religionists of the northern plains and towns.

In practice it is impossible to make a copy of a film for each of the Moroccan languages. The only solution has seemed to be the recording on the film of an 'international' sound-track, that is, containing no spoken word. The film script is given over a microfilm by trained speakers, as described later.

It has been necessary, too, to take cultural variations within the country into account. A single example will be enough: quite often our film vans arrive at tribal gatherings where the people have never seen a moving picture or even a still one. It is a very delicate matter to approach such minds, free of concepts, simply receptive, and so able to take in only simple images which have features in common with the traditional daily life.

Cinema work in the Moroccan countryside thus demands considerable knowledge of psychology, of the local customs and mores and of Arabic and Berber. There can be no question of relying solely on film technicians, whether it be for writing scenarios, producing films or projecting them.

The credit for evolving (in 1939 and 1940) an effective method of using the film is due to two officials of the Native Affairs Department (*Service des Affaires Indigènes*), who combined the necessary background knowledge with practical imagination and a feeling for the cinema.

USE OF THE CINEMA UP TO 1940

More than ten years ago the first type of mobile unit was put on the road: a light truck fitted with 16 mm. projectors and a small generator. The equip-

ment was designed for projection both in the open air and in halls with a screen of normal size.

A 'mixer' allowed for various methods of sound production — the sound track of the film, discs of recorded music for silent films, or direct commentary by microphone. After some experiments it was possible to perfect this technique for using the film.

Since that period, therefore, apart from their use in urban shows for school children, the film vans have enabled us to traverse the remotest parts of the countryside. Open-air projection has always seemed the most suitable, because of the large number of spectators one can thus cater for : up to 5,000 or 6,000 or even more, sitting on the ground and having a clear view from either side of the screen.

During the experimental stage documentary and recreational films were projected, with a commentary in the vernacular. During the intervals local humorists and story-tellers used the microphone to entertain the crowds, and chieftains were able to deliver speeches.

When the travelling cinema had proved itself an effective means of rural action, a new type of vehicle, more modern and powerful, was developed and built in Morocco. We are now using this new model; its construction and method of use may be worth examining in some detail.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION

Our equipment is as follows :

1. The cinema van.

The coach and fittings were specially made at Casablanca and every piece of equipment, however small, had to be carefully planned to stand up to heat and bad roads.

The projection cabin is large. It holds the following items, usually two of each :

- 16 mm. sound projector
- 35 mm. sound projector
- amplifier, 110 volts
- amplifier, 6 volts
- sound mixer, for controlled production of sound, separately or simultaneously, from various sources—film sound tracks, records, microphone
- radio receiving sets, 6 volts and 110 volts, for relaying broadcast programmes through the van's amplifiers
- turntables, 6 volts and 110 volts, with record changer, for providing silent films with sound
- sound recorder, which permits instantaneous play-back
- line amplifier, for recording sound from a distance
- 16 mm. moving picture camera
- speakers' microphone, placed in the driver's cab
- incidental equipment: field telephone, control apparatus, battery charger, ventilation, etc.
- complete repair outfit for the electrical equipment, which also serves partly for the van engines
- field film library
- field record library
- a screen of normal size which is placed 20 metres from the film van and parallel to it. The screen rests on a wooden base high enough to provide good visibility for all spectators. Over 1000 people can sit between the van and the screen, and even more behind the screen where the transparent image

can be seen clearly. For carriage, the wooden base is fastened to the roof of the projection cabin

— four loud-speakers are fixed to the top of the screen base, two facing each way. Verbal commentary and musical accompaniment are audible and intelligible for a radius of over 1,000 metres.

— a powerful arc-light with a 1,500 watt lamp is placed on the roof of the projection cabin to light up the crowd before and after shows, or during intervals.

2. Generating unit.

A second vehicle carries a generating plant (quiet enough not to disturb spectators) and so furnishes the current needed by the first van. This vehicle also carries baggage, fuel and spare parts.

STAFF

The team needed for one of these two-van units is:

— a director, responsible for planning the itinerary and the sessions and for supervising commentary;

— an operator who is also a good radio electrician, able to carry out running repairs;

— an assistant operator;

— an Arabic commentator;

— a Berber commentator (*Tamazight dialect*);

— a second Berber commentator (*Tachelhit dialect*).

The speakers are thus able to give a commentary on any film in the dialect of the place where the show is held.

Long and careful preparatory work and training are carried out in Rabat before a unit takes to the road. A special projection room has been equipped for this purpose. Once a programme is chosen, a commentary has to be prepared and translated into three languages. Each speaker learns his commentary by heart. Finally, there is the problem of synchronizing film images, spoken commentary and sound accompaniment; frequent rehearsal is necessary.

A good team, well trained, succeeds in playing the most difficult films and achieves perfect synchronization; and this effort is repeated for each performance.

ORGANIZATION OF SHOWS

Each time a tour is planned the headquarters of the Film Service informs the authorities of the districts concerned, giving enough notice to enable the local people to assemble on the date fixed.

As far as possible, use is made of traditional meetings—fairs, markets, feasts, etc.

Ideally, two shows are given successively in the same place so as to reach the largest possible audience and to give people time to understand fully what they see. The performances are organized as follows:

After visiting the local authorities, the staff select a site; the show is then announced by the film van which makes a publicity tour of the surrounding area, broadcasting music at the same time.

Screen and projectors are put up in daylight; this always draws a good crowd of spectators.

When night comes, the audience take their places by arc-light. The loud-speakers give recorded music or relay the Arabic or Berber broadcasts of Radio Maroc. The Mokhaznis (local officials) ensure order. The shows are entirely free.

Chairs and carpets are placed between the van and the screen, to be occupied by the local authorities and women and children; the remaining spectators sit behind the screen and at the sides.

Before the show begins an announcer gives a short talk to explain what is to come, and to welcome the French and Moslem authorities whose names he mentions with customary compliments.

The films are then shown, partly with commentary, partly with sound track. Each one is preceded by a short announcement to give the general substance.

The show begins at 9 p.m. and lasts about two hours. At the end the spectators are thanked for attending, new records are played, and a crowd always remains to watch dismantling operations.

STRUCTURE OF PROGRAMMES AND USE OF MICROPHONE

Experience has shown the value of dividing a show into three parts:

(a) at first, a film for 'bait', or rather, for 'introducing the screen image'. This is a documentary showing scenes of Moroccan life, in colour whenever possible.

This first part has the role of making the local people familiar with the screen and the moving image, since they may be seeing a film for the first time in their lives. They see people, places and scenes that are a familiar part of daily life—a proof, too, that this new kind of spectacle truthfully portrays real life, and is not something foreign, manufactured specially for some ulterior motive.

One has to be present at the early part of a show to realize the importance of first impressions; shots of the blacksmith shoeing an ass, of the potter moulding his clay, of an old man eating locusts, a camel getting up with his load, set up general excitement; shouts of joy and astonishment are heard on all sides; and the excellent commentary in the vernacular amuses the crowd wildly. And when the spectators see on the screen the scenes they know so well—at Agadir, say, the head fisherman, or at Taroudant the snake charmer at work in the Souk el Khemis—they are converted, their confidence is won, the moving picture is the very embodiment of truth. It only needs twenty or thirty minutes to break the ice, to gain the people over, and we can then pass with profit to the genuinely educational films.

(b) The second is the educational part of the programme: agriculture or animal husbandry, according to the region; films on modern crafts and trades, on the development of Morocco (farming, barrages and irrigation works, control of parasites, etc.); on health and hygiene. This part is naturally the most important.

(c) Finally, whenever possible we have a comic or action film with microphone explanation—Tarzan, a Western—to enable the crowd to relax. This is necessary since those who have little training soon become wearied by following too great a number of images.

Music is a particularly important element. A Moroccan group responds differently from the average European audience. Singing produces a marked effect, almost physical, and arouses emotion which Europeans would not feel. A song about daily work will evoke for the Moroccan audience a whole living world, lift them out of themselves, and often cause them to improvise and anticipate parts of the song.

We make use of this taste, teaching the crowd short refrains which later become well known over a whole area. Each song is introduced and explained over the microphone.

The microphone, in fact, is one of the most useful instruments in our film

unit. Experience has shown that nothing is as effective as the direct commentary, since it can be adapted to widely differing groups of spectators. The commentary may be progressively improved in the light of audience reactions. A skilful announcer quickly gets into touch with the audience—he arouses their interest, puts questions and obtains answers, builds up the atmosphere—and lives through the film with them.

THE FILMS

Once the mobile cinema unit was established and a suitable method of using it had been developed, the Government of the Protectorate had to solve a problem no less delicate: how to produce films satisfying local needs.

For this purposes the Moroccan Cinematographic Centre was set up in 1944; it is a special body for producing and distributing films intended mainly for the native population of Morocco. The Centre has made a number of folklore films, but specializes in short documentary and educational films: improved methods of farming and of craft industries; Moroccan industrialization; modern techniques for improving stock and combating pests; and on the purely social level, films on hygiene and preventive medicine. Some remarkable films were recently produced on tuberculosis, typhus and malaria, and they are to be distributed widely.

RESULTS

The methods evolved since 1938 have given excellent results; records from thousands of past performances over the whole country confirm this. At present our vans work to a schedule covering no less than 300 centres per year. Observations made by local authorities also show that the mass education effects of the films are considerable.

EDUCATING AUSTRALIA'S INLAND CHILDREN

by. W. P. GOODWIN

While fully realizing that the Australian system of correspondence schools cannot be considered as fundamental education from the point of view of the subject-matter, we thought that this article might be of interest as it provides an example of a method which could be fruitfully applied to other purposes.

BECAUSE of her long-established policy of public education for all, there are few people in Australia who are not reached by the schools. Only one real difficulty has been encountered in organizing the usual educational services—the great distances involved and the sparseness of population in inland areas. Naturally the cities are well provided for, but it would be a mistake to imagine that they receive preferential treatment.

Australia's educational services are divided into six separate units, corresponding to its six constituent States. Although each unit has developed independently, all are fundamentally similar. Education in Australia is not only compulsory and free, but seven or eight of every ten children attend schools provided by the State, and these offer primary, post-primary, secondary and technical courses, leading to matriculation. For those who prove themselves capable, it may lead to training at the universities.

Australia's educational facilities differ little from those of all enlightened countries, but one interesting feature is that in every capital city is to be found a school of a peculiar kind.

It is the result of a unique educational development—a school with a full complement of teachers, but lacking visible pupils. Inspection of these 'phantom' schools reveals that the pupils are scattered through the length and breadth of the continent. They are all children who, either because of distance from the nearest school, or because of physical or other disability, are unable to receive education in the normal way.

Educational authorities were long faced with the problem of providing for these children, most of whom live in the outback. It was found possible to provide schools for children even in small villages and scattered settlements, and a teacher will generally be provided wherever there is a nucleus of 12 to 15 children. For smaller groups, where several parents band together, the State will grant a subsidy to aid them in engaging a teacher. In other cases, itinerant teachers are employed.

But these methods, while helpful, failed to solve the problem of the isolated child. This was successfully overcome by a system of education by correspondence. By this method, schooling is now regularly provided free for every child between the ages of 6 and 15 years who applies for it, irrespective of class or wealth. None of the recipients attends a school. Most are out of reach in the forests of Victoria, in the open spaces of the north and west of South Australia, or in the vast, sparsely settled west of New South Wales, in the tropics of Queensland and the Northern Territory, in the mountain districts of Tasmania, in the wide expanses of Western Australia, and even in the Pacific islands, and indeed, throughout the world wherever Australian children seek education.

Education by correspondence is no makeshift. It teaches children as well as,

and in some respects better than, ordinary school methods. The curriculum is similar to that for ordinary children, but it provides for individual tuition, each pupil progressing at his or her own speed and with no undue emphasis placed on examinations. The usual subjects are covered, and also such unusual ones as horticulture, poultry raising, handicrafts, cookery and home supervision and decoration, sewing and embroidery, art and technical drawing.

Today, the successful development of correspondence tuition has brought to many tens of thousands of children full educational facilities previously quite beyond their reach. The six independent experiments have long since become definitely established institutions, and at present some 18,000 children otherwise doomed to ignorance are receiving advantages similar to those of their more fortunately placed fellows. They comprise about two per cent. of all Australian children receiving elementary education.

So successful has the system proved in recent years that its facilities have been extended to secondary pupils in country schools having one or two teachers, and to both primary and secondary pupils in subsidized schools. During the war, this well-established system was able to give first-class service.

In each State the system grew out of the need for education in the outback areas. By 1922, from adventurous beginnings it had become part of a regular service in all States. In Victoria, for example, the story began in 1914 when the Education Department received a letter from a settler in Beech Forest in the extreme south-west of the State. He lived about eight miles from the nearest school and sought information about the possibility of educating his two boys. Five students at the Teachers' Training College in Melbourne volunteered to try to teach them by correspondence. At the end of the year the boys attended the nearest school and passed the annual examination. This was the beginning of an experiment that proved so successful that within three years full-time teachers were assigned to develop it.

While education by correspondence varies in certain details and in range in the various Australian States, it is similar in all essentials. Any child is eligible for enrolment who is unable either because of distance or lack of transport to attend an ordinary school, provided that someone in the child's home is prepared to exercise general supervision of the school work. Education Departments, country newspapers, and various associations do all they can to publicize the system.

The headquarters schools are conducted along lines similar to ordinary schools, the teachers working ordinary school hours, and dealing with classes approximately the same size as those in ordinary schools. The Sydney school, for instance, employs 190 teachers, who are normal members of the State teaching services, and like all State teachers have been trained in the same colleges. They are then appointed to the State teaching services, in which they may be moved to any part of the country.

The method of dealing with pupils' work is much the same in all schools. At the largest, each correspondence pupil is usually issued with three work books. At any given time one is with the pupil, one in transit by post, and one with the teacher, who corrects and returns it during the same week that it is received. The arrival of the books each week constitutes the teachers' class roll.

Pupils regularly receive instruction leaflets, either weekly or fortnightly according to the State, one of the 42 or 21, as the case may be, which comprise the year's work. These are supplemented by general sheets, the purpose of which is to keep the child up-to-date on work already done and the latest current events. There is also a separate arithmetic sheet, by means of which instruction in this subject may keep pace with the child's attainments. Postage

is free and the leaflets replace text-books. The latter are required only for such things as English authors and maps, and these are available to all school children in cheap editions.

As each leaflet is ready for despatch, it is posted to the pupil, who under the eye of a special supervisor does his or her lessons during regular daily hours as at school. Lessons may be done in the corner of a verandah at a lonely station homestead, in some distant prospector's camp, at an isolated lighthouse, or in a travelling circus. Delivery of instructions is made by modern means of transport where these are available, but where they are not, by horseback or even by camel, sometimes after a long arduous journey through the wilderness.

Two essential features of the system are the fitness of the supervisor and the close personal relationship developed between teacher, parents and pupil. Supervisors, usually some member of the family, are carefully advised. They are frequently mothers, who, despite the long, hard hours of the outback housewife, generally display great anxiety to ensure satisfactory progress in the education of their children; and anxiety that is usually the greater in proportion to the shortcomings of their own education. Wherever possible, parents and pupils are encouraged to visit teachers during vacations, hundreds of them doing so throughout the year. It is usual for close personal attachments to grow, the teacher coming to be regarded as a distant member of the family and a guide, philosopher and friend.

By contrast, humour is also provided. The master of the household may sometimes find himself in trouble when, having been entrusted with posting a booklet back to teacher, discussion of the season's prospects with distant neighbours at the nearest hamlet leads him to forget the post-box.

The lessons are on their way.



Reinforcing the correspondence courses is the radio, which is becoming increasingly important. In addition to their own special sessions, correspondence schools use the normal Australian Broadcasting Commission school broadcasts. These are prepared in consultation with State Education Departments, and in co-operation with the principals of correspondence schools. However, certain limitations exist in the case of broadcasting. Because of the number of teachers, it is possible for only a small percentage to broadcast. Others have unsuitable voices or poor broadcasting technique. On the other hand, some things can be conveyed by radio which cannot be taught by correspondence.

Broadcasting is peculiarly important in such subjects as speech training, music appreciation, singing, foreign languages and dramatization.

Special mention must be made of the magazine published annually in each State, containing mainly the contributions of pupils and the thousands of former pupils. The purpose is to develop an *esprit de corps* and to make pupils feel that they belong with others at a school. How well this has been fostered was shown during the war when correspondence schools in one State alone raised funds not only to present an ambulance, but to provide hundreds of former pupils who were in the armed forces.

These ex-pupils included one V.C. and many others received decorations.

Correspondence pupils are ordinarily expected to attend school at the secondary stage, and an increasing number are doing so. Indeed, a remarkable number of men and women now in the professions or holding important public positions began as correspondence pupils. Among them are a university professor, an anthropologist, many graduates and teachers, and some ministers of religion.

Although much Australian back country is still undeveloped, and the population very scattered, illiteracy will continue to remain low where it might very well be expected to be the accepted condition. This encouraging result has been achieved at a cost somewhat lower per pupil than the cost to the State of ordinary schooling.

A pleasing feature of the system is the extraordinary co-operation shown by all sections of the community. In this way enlightenment is being taken to the backblocks, and a new era has opened for the folk in the far places, enabling them to keep pace with events, improve their methods, increase their self-reliance and enrich their lives.

It is appropriate that the only prize awarded by the largest schools is a badge in silver given for outstanding progress. It bears the motto *Age quid agas.*

MOBILE MUSEUM UNITS

by KENNETH B. DISHER

THE term mobile museum unit as used in this paper applies to travelling museum exhibits which may be complete exhibitions within themselves or cross-sections of exhibitions offered by a museum, which are placed or semi-permanently installed in a trailer or a self-powered special chassis. The idea of mobile units is not new, but their employment in connexion with audio-visual aids programmes or as an integral part of educational programmes does represent a new experiment on the part of museographers. Specialists in museography have been making careful studies of the needs and the trends of museum visitors. The results of some of these studies have brought about participation on the part of the museum in programmes on the radio (and now television), popularization of the museum publications, and a multiple variety of other activities—within and outside the museum—enlisting visitor participation. The mobile unit in some respects is an extension of these museum services to suburban or rural areas lacking in museum facilities, but it also serves to make people aware of the museum for what it represents in the educational and cultural life of the community.

Unfortunately many of the most important museums and their collections are to be found only in the large cities. Great numbers of people living outside of these areas have little or no opportunity to see or learn what is to be found in their museum collections. Too infrequently it is only the well-informed individual or the conducted group who, upon their visit to metropolitan centres, avail themselves of the opportunity to visit their museums. To many of the inhabitants of the cities themselves the museum appears to be a formidable pile of marble that appears more like a mausoleum than a living institution. To combat these situations museums have employed the media of mass communication and developed their public relations services so that they extend beyond the doors of the museum itself. The mobile unit is another means the museums have adopted to bring their services to the people residing in settlement or housing project areas, hospitals, orphanages, schools, suburban communities, or outlying rural districts.

Several American museums have developed and placed in operation mobile units to perform these services. Notable among them have been the Illinois State Museum, Springfield, Illinois, 'Museumobile'; the Children's Museum, Washington D.C., 'Trailercoach'; the Cleveland Museum of Natural History, Cleveland, Ohio, 'Travelling Trailside Museum'; and the California State Centennial Commission, Sacramento, California, 'Historical Coach'. The only known mobile unit in Europe is the one recently placed in operation by the National Museum in Warsaw, Poland.

The Illinois and California units are similar to the Polish Mobile Museum in that they are completely self-propelled or have their own power units. The Illinois and Polish units have their entrance and exit from the rear. The Washington and Cleveland units were trailer units that necessitated the employment of another vehicle to draw them and also required electrical services for lighting the exhibits when in use. The latter provided better visitor circulation in that they had an entrance from the rear with the exit from the front of the unit. All units are without windows. The California unit employs

two bus chassis, which operate together as an exhibit unit. When in use for display purposes the two units are placed alongside one another and connected with a covered walk. Entrance is gained at the rear of one bus and exit from the front of the second. The wall space of all units is utilized for exhibition purposes either with built-in cases or with flat framed areas which may or may not be glass-covered.

It must be recognized that mobile units, because of their size, limit to a considerable degree the presentation of any museum exhibit or story in its entirety as well as the number of visitors that may view it at the same time. For this reason each museum has developed certain exhibition techniques that meet its specific needs in the mobile unit. Each unit has certain distinctive features that may eventually be incorporated into one unit that will be able to serve a far greater number than present units are able to do at one time. I believe a short discussion on the characteristics of each of the units would be of interest to the reader.

The Trailercouch formerly operated by the Children's Museum in Washington adopted a standard house trailer. The nature of the exhibit materials did not require protection from handling on the part of the young visitor; the exhibits were made up largely from handicraft objects from other countries, the idea being that in order to become acquainted with the techniques employed in the making of the object the best method was to permit handling

Cleveland 'Travelling Trailside Museum': general view of the body.



Cleveland 'Travelling Trailside Museum': a class group examining an exhibit.



by the visitor. The exhibits in the coach were usually from one country and were made available by the cultural activities divisions of the foreign embassies in Washington. The museum's educational programme was correlated with the school system's studies programme for instruction in the field of geography, industry and art of a specific country. The museum provided materials that could be seen and used by many children in a large metropolitan area at a minimum of expense. It also served to focus attention on the museum as a place to spend leisure time or to associate oneself in constructive projects in out-of-school hours.

The Travelling Trailside Museum of the Cleveland Museum of Natural History, which was in operation from September 1947 to October 1948, carried on a more formal educational programme and one closely tied into the activities of the museum itself. The trailer, because of its unique design, offered exhibits that could be viewed from the outside as well as the inside. This was possible through the raising of one side of the trailer which formed a canopy and offered four small dioramas or habitat groups which the naturalist in charge of the unit was able to use as an introduction to the materials on exhibit in the inside. The interior of this unit contained five standard recessed type museum cases with plate-glass fronts. The depth of these cases was approximately 12 inches, thus permitting the use of models or other three-dimensional material. At either end of the inside of the trailer was a space for additional habitat groups or exhibition cases as the need required. The first programme of the Travelling Trailside Museum was centred around the seasons of the year. There was close liaison with the science departments of the public and suburban school systems. The content of the exhibits was also planned and presented in such a manner that it had definite interest to others than schoolchildren. The unit served as an important link with the other extension activities of the museum in its branch museum programme. Another feature of the trailer was that the exhibits could be quickly changed because of the removable nature of the cases themselves and their interchange with actual exhibits on display in the museum. The unit also served to provide a portable display for outdoor sports expositions, teachers' conventions and activities of a similar nature that required special exhibits on natural history.

The general procedure was to make arrangements in advance for the appearance of the trailer at a school, hospital or housing project and also

to provide a brief announcement regarding the exhibition. This practice enabled the group leaders, teachers or individuals themselves to brief others or themselves on the story that was being presented. This mobile unit gave much pleasure and enjoyment to many that were unable personally to visit the museum. It undoubtedly brought to the attention of many in a large metropolitan area the programme and the purposes of the museum which it represented, and contributed materially to the educational and cultural life of the community.

The Illinois Museumobile was planned to carry to the people of the State of Illinois the programme and services offered by their State Museum. This new endeavour has reached into nearly every community in the state, which has resulted directly in increased demand on the services offered by the museum. The exhibits in the Museumobile are given over entirely to stories of Illinois; its geological, archaeological and historical past. No attempt is made to tell the complete story in any one of these fields but rather to give the visitors a cross-section of what the parent museum offers. This unit has the advantage in that it is completely self-contained and is far more mobile than the two trailer units previously mentioned.

The California Centennial Commission's units, though not directly sponsored by a museum, are really travelling museums which are employing museographical techniques to tell the historical story of the State to the people of California. The exhibition units are similar to those employed in Cleveland's Travelling Trailside Museum. The content of the exhibits is made up of actual historical documents connected with the founding of early life in the State. This material is supplemented with additional graphic devices that further elaborate the story about California. The California mobile units have brought together for the first time materials that are scattered throughout the State in museums and private collections that would require many months of an individual's time to see on his own, at considerable expense to himself.

The National Museum of Poland is featuring temporary exhibits largely on Polish culture. The techniques of exhibition are similar to those employed by the American museums in their mobile units. This mobile Museum provides lighting for its exhibits by overhead skylights in the ceiling of the unit. Another unique feature is the use of the semi-truck chassis or tractor type of power

Illinois State 'Museumobile': view of the interior.



unit to haul the exhibition about the country. This would appear to offer two distinct advantages, firstly, that larger over-all space compartments have been developed for this type of vehicle which in turn would permit of greater exhibition space; secondly, a unit could be placed at a central point and the power unit could return for another unit to be taken to another point for display purposes. However this type of unit would, I feel, be limited to operation in a country with an excellent all 'high gear' road system.

The mobile museum unit can in no way completely replace a main museum or a branch museum, but it can well play an important role in supplementing a museum's programme of educational and cultural services. The mobile museum unit has demonstrated its effectiveness in stimulating visitors to want to know more about the exhibits that are represented or as cross-sectional exhibits from a parent museum. The mobile museums are giving to many people new and interesting experiences which have been denied them because of the distance from the museum or the psychological resistance to passing through the doors of so many formidable museum plants. They have in turn given the museums an opportunity to present their treasures and interesting objects of the cultural heritage of man. The mobile museum unit presents a new and really unmatched opportunity for museums to present in simple and straightforward illustrative exhibits the stories they have to tell, as well as the results of the research of the museographers and their contributions to the increased knowledge of the world in which we live.

The mobile museum unit may well be considered an on-the-spot 'clearing house' which, through the use of modern museum techniques and trained leaders, brings visual aids directly to the prospective viewer. They may become an integral part of a fundamental education programme.

Paris, September 1950.

NOTES AND RECORDS

HEALTH CAMPAIGN IN VENEZUELA

Interesting news has come from the CIDEA, Inter-American Council for Nutrition Education, a body now set up in Caracas. The Council has developed a widespread campaign for both schoolchildren and adults. Leaflets, pamphlets and posters provide the material for the campaign, and the Council is now at work on films, radio programmes and a series of well-produced teachers' guides. Youth groups (rather like 4-H and Young Farmers' Clubs) have been formed in a large number of primary schools. Perhaps the most interesting experiment is the mobile unit which tours rural areas; apart from serving general entertainment ends—music programmes, films—the van has a cooking unit and a qualified demonstrator who gives practical lessons with the local foods at each stopping place.

INTER-AMERICAN SEMINAR

Regional seminars in Latin America are following a regular annual pattern. After the meeting of educators last year at Quitandinha, Rio de Janeiro, a seminar is now being held at Montevideo (25 September-31 October) to study all aspects of the primary school in the Americas. The Government of Uruguay, the Organization of American States and Unesco are joint sponsors.

The programme allows for five study-groups: organization of elementary school systems and services; curricula and methods; universal, free and compulsory education; teacher training; textbooks and teaching materials.

RECENT UNESCO SEMINARS

On two of the seminars held during the summer—the study of libraries and adult education (Sweden) and of the techniques of adult education (Austria)—short summary reports are to be published soon.

WORLD AGREEMENT TO ABOLISH DUTIES ON BOOKS, SCIENCE EQUIPMENT, ART AND EDUCATIONAL FILMS

Teachers and students throughout the world will be able to receive books, scientific equipment, works of art, films, sound recordings and other audio-visual aids free of customs duties under an international agreement which Unesco is sponsoring as a means of reducing barriers to world trade in educational, scientific and cultural materials. The text of this convention, which is unprecedented in scope and importance, was approved by the 59 Member States attending Unesco's recent General Conference in Florence.

The two world wars led to the erection of tariff and other trade barriers which have greatly hampered the free flow of ideas and knowledge. As a result, the final cost of educational, scientific and cultural materials is often increased by 200 or 300 per cent. More than 50 countries today impose customs duties, postal taxes, licensing or other restrictions on books from abroad. Many nations tax imported educational films by the foot and sculpture by

the pound. Scientific equipment is taxed with equal severity. Educational exhibits, destined for schools and museums, languish in customs warehouses while the sponsors try to raise the heavy bond often required by the authorities.

It was to remedy this and similar situations that the Unesco agreement has been designed.

Governments adhering to the 'Agreement on the Importation of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Materials' will grant duty-free entry to books, newspapers, magazines, musical scores, maps, charts and travel literature. They will arrange licences and foreign exchange for publications consigned to public libraries. And they will provide free entry for books and other educational material needed by the blind.

The agreement will permit the free importation of paintings, drawings and sculpture. Newsreels, educational, scientific or cultural films, filmstrips, microfilms, slides and sound recordings will likewise be freed from tariff restrictions. Duties will also be lifted from a wide range of materials consigned specifically to educational, scientific and cultural institutions. These items include: scientific instruments, apparatus and collections; objects of art; patterns, models and wall charts; and architectural, industrial or engineering plans and designs.

Unesco is circulating the convention to all its Member States, and to members of the United Nations. It will be open for signature at Lake Success, New York, shortly and will come into force following ratification by ten countries.

The United Kingdom Government has announced that it will submit the text to Parliament for ratification. Belgium, France, Luxemburg, the Netherlands and Switzerland are among other countries which are expected to take quick action for legislative approval.

Following its adoption at Florence, the Director-General of Unesco, Mr. Jaime Torres Bodet, said the new world pact represented a substantial contribution, in the technical field, to mutual understanding and peace. He urged swift ratification to bring it into force.

This is the second international agreement to be sponsored by Unesco. The first, which is designed to abolish duties, quotas and licensing restrictions on films, recordings and other audio-visual aids to education, has now been signed by 18 countries and ratified by 3 (Norway, Pakistan and Yugoslavia). Both conventions have been sponsored by Unesco in accordance with its constitutional mandate to 'recommend such international agreements as may be necessary to promote the free flow of ideas by word and image'.

GENERAL STUDY OF MOBILE UNITS

Unesco has just published *The use of mobile cinema and radio vans in fundamental education*, a study prepared by Film Centre, London; 192 pages, illustrated, \$1.00, or 6s., or 300 francs. This book draws together for the first time the experience of a wide range of countries and while it is by no means comprehensive it gives a useful basis of comparison for those now working in the field and a guide to educators who are still at the planning stage.

The earlier part of the book discusses the main problems in the light of practical work: organizing a mobile cinema service; transport; projectors; use of sound; setting up a programme; staff. A short chapter, 'Conclusions', summarizes the evidence.

Selections from the source material on which the study was made are given *in extenso* in appendices; these not only quote reports of field workers but also give technical descriptions of equipment. Finally, some 30 pages are devoted to photographs and diagrams.

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